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Sedimentological and microfaunal evidence for final deglaciation of the Malin Sea through meltwater release and calving events

Abbreviated title: Malin Sea shelf final deglaciation

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Abstract (199 words)

During the last glacial maximum, the British-Irish Ice Sheet (BIIS) extended to the shelf edge in the Malin Sea between Ireland and Scotland, delivering sediments to the Donegal Barra Fan (DBF). The analysis of well-preserved, glacially-derived sediment in the DBF provides new insights on the character of the BIIS final deglaciation and on paleoenvironmental conditions at the Younger Dryas (YD). Chaotic/laminated muds, ice-rafted debris (IRD)-rich layers and laminated sand-mud couplets are interpreted as mass transport deposits, plumites and turbidites from BIIS-transported sediments. Peaks in IRD concentration constrained by radiocarbon dating to after 18 ka cal. BP indicate discrete

30 intervals of iceberg calving during the last stages of deglaciation. Glacially-derived sedimentation on
31 the slope occurred until ~16.9 ka cal. BP. This is interpreted as the last time ice extended onto the
32 shelf allowing glacial meltwater to reach the fan. Bioturbated and foraminifera-rich muds above
33 glaciomarine sediments are interpreted as interglacial hemipelagites and contourites, with the
34 presence of *Zoophycos* suggesting restoration of bottom currents at the transition between stadial and
35 interstadial conditions. During the YD, *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma* sinistral abundances and an
36 isolated peak in IRD indicate the temporary restoration of cold conditions and the presence of floating
37 icebergs in the region.

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3 Malin Sea between Ireland and Scotland, delivering sediments to the Donegal Barra Fan (DBF). The
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15 isolated peak in IRD indicate the temporary restoration of cold conditions and the presence of floating
16 icebergs in the region.

17

18 **Keywords:** deglaciation, marine terminating ice sheet, ice rafted debris, meltwater, plumites,
19 Younger Dryas

20

21 The North Atlantic continental margin can be subdivided into three sedimentary settings: glaciated,
22 glacially-influenced and non-glaciated margin in relation to the contribution of different depositional
23 processes that produce distinct geomorphologies, including glaciogenic fans, complex canyon
24 systems, areas of mass transport deposits and large contouritic drifts (Stoker 1995; Holmes et al.

1998; Weaver et al. 2000; Piper 2005; Sejrup et al. 2005; Stoker et al. 2005; Sacchetti et al. 2012a). North of 56°N, along the glaciated margin, glaciogenic fans, large sediment depocentres, built during glacial periods through downslope mass wasting, are the main sedimentary feature (Howe 1995; Armishaw et al. 1998; Howe et al. 1998; Weaver et al. 2000; Sejrup et al. 2005; Stoker et al. 2005). South of 56°N and north of 26°N, the continental slope was mostly shaped during glacial times by downslope sediment transport, mostly in the form of turbidity currents and mass wasting, resulting in intricate and dendritic canyon systems (Sejrup et al. 2005; Cronin et al. 2005; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2012; Sacchetti et al. 2012a). Along the western Irish and UK margin, the extension of the British-Irish Ice Sheet (BIIS) on the continental shelf contributed to the development of both glaciogenic fans and canyons north and south of 56°N. The Donegal-Barra Fan (DBF), located north-west of the island of Ireland (Fig. 1), was formed during Pleistocene glaciations and represents the southernmost of the North Atlantic glaciogenic fans, as well as the largest fan associated with the BIIS (Stoker 1995; Clark et al. 2012). As in similar settings along the Norwegian, Arctic, Antarctic and Canadian margins, the fan provides an ideal location for the investigation of the dynamics of marine-terminating ice sheets as it is more likely to contain a less disturbed and better preserved record of glacially-derived sediments compared to shallower water glacial deposits (Lucchi et al. 2015). Indeed, sediments on the DBF were previously studied to better understand the sedimentary evolution of the margin and the glacial history of the BIIS (Knutz et al. 2001; Wilson et al. 2002). Within this study, we investigated three sediment cores from the DBF, each between 6 and 7 m long, to reconstruct the deglaciation of the BIIS through the interpretation of sedimentary processes and relevant proxy records, namely Ice Rafted Debris (IRD) concentrations and foraminifera (*Neogloboquadrina pachyderma* sinistral) abundances. The aim of this paper is two-fold: 1) to describe and chronologically constrain the deglaciation of the BIIS using deep-water sediments and 2) to record the changing environmental conditions in this region from the last glacial to the present interglacial period.

50

51 **Regional setting**

52 ***The British-Irish Ice Sheet on the Malin Sea shelf***

53 The BIIS was a largely marine-terminating and highly dynamic ice sheet that covered most of Ireland
54 and Britain during its maximum extent (Scourse et al. 2009; Chiverrell & Thomas 2010; Clark et al.
55 2012; Peters et al. 2015; Callard et al. 2019). Several phases of advance and retreat on the continental
56 shelf during the last glacial period have been inferred based on geomorphological and
57 sedimentological evidence (Van Landeghem et al. 2009; Chiverrell & Thomas 2010; Dunlop et al.
58 2010; Clark et al. 2012; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2012; Peters et al. 2015; Callard et al. 2019). The BIIS
59 reached its maximum extent on the outer Malin Sea shelf (MSs) at 27 ka, followed by a stepped
60 retreat and possible periods of still-stand marked by grounding-zone wedges recently identified on
61 the continental shelf, with smaller oscillations at millennial scale-variability identified in deep-water
62 sediment records (Knutz et al. 2002; Wilson et al. 2002; Callard et al. 2019). These minor advances
63 seem to correspond with the Dansgaard–Oeschger (D-O) multimillennial climatic cycles recorded in
64 the Greenland ice cores and in the North Atlantic deep-water sediments (Wilson et al. 2002; Peck et
65 al. 2006; Scourse et al. 2009). On the MSs, numerous glacial landforms (i.e. moraines, drumlins,
66 iceberg scours and lineations) have been mapped and interpreted as related to the dynamism of the
67 last BIIS (Benetti et al. 2010; Dunlop et al. 2010; Howe et al. 2012; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2012; Dove et
68 al. 2015). These features suggest the presence of ice-streams flowing offshore from multiples
69 directions from north-west Ireland and western Scotland (North Channel Ice Stream-NCIS, Hebrides
70 Ice Stream-HIS in Fig. 1), before converging on the Malin Sea shelf and delivering large amounts of
71 meltwater and sediment to the DBF. The HIS alone was calculated as draining between 5-10 % of
72 the former BIIS (Dove et al. 2015). Glacial processes therefore transported glaciogenic sediment to
73 the shelf edge and downslope to the DBF during periods of ice sheet maximum extent across the shelf
74 (Knutz et al. 2001; Wilson et al. 2002; Bradwell et al. 2008; Dunlop et al. 2010; Dove et al. 2015;
75 Ballantyne & Ó Cofaigh 2017; Small et al. 2017). The features also suggest episodes of BIIS advance

76 and retreat and indicate that ice streaming occurred during ice sheet retreat and reorganisation within
77 the last deglaciation (Dunlop et al., 2010; Dove et al., 2015). Scottish terrestrial evidence indicates
78 that the total deglaciation of the BIIS marine termination along western Scotland and the Hebrides,
79 with ice-streaming interruption and ice retreat to the coast line, occurred after 16 ka cal. BP (Small et
80 al. 2016; Small et al. 2017). These previous reconstructions focussed on the deglaciation of the BIIS
81 as recorded on the Malin Sea shelf, but the pattern of sedimentation along the slope and the DBF
82 during deglaciation is still largely unexplored.

83

84 ***The Donegal-Barra Fan***

85 From the end of the Pliocene, sedimentation along the NW European margin was driven by the
86 Northern Hemisphere's extended glaciations that, through the extension of large marine-terminating
87 ice sheets, shaped the shallow portions of continental margins and delivered sediments to the deep
88 water (Stoker 1995; Davidson & Stoker 2002; Stoker et al. 2005; Sejrup et al. 2005; O' Reilly et al.
89 2007; Sacchetti et al. 2012a). On the Hebrides slope, the upper part of sedimentary sequence, which
90 records the final seaward progradation of the continental margin through slope-front glaciogenic
91 debris-flows, is referred to as the MacLeod sequence (Stoker et al. 1994; Stoker et al. 2005). The
92 Donegal-Barra Fan (DBF), between 57° N and 55° N along the North East Atlantic margin, is part of
93 this sequence and started forming during the Plio-Pleistocene (Fig. 1; Stoker 1995; Armishaw et al.
94 1998). The fan has often been described as the largest sedimentary body resulting from the drainage
95 of the western BIIS, occupying an area of 6300 km² and with a maximum thickness between 400 and
96 700 m (Armishaw et al. 1998). It extends from the shelf edge at ca 200 m water depth to about 2000
97 m, to the north and south of the Hebrides Seamount and along the eastern flank of the Rockall Trough,
98 which is a deep elongate basin orientated NE-SW parallel to the continental margin (Fig. 1; Ó Cofaigh
99 et al. 2012; Sacchetti et al. 2012b). Many sediment lobes, extending up to 250 km in length, have
100 been identified in recent studies and interpreted as the result of episodes of large-scale downslope

101 mass wasting related to ice streaming across the Malin Sea shelf during glacial intervals (Knutz et al.
102 2002; Sacchetti et al. 2012a).

103

104 ***Regional oceanography***

105 The main surface current in the North Atlantic is the North Atlantic Current (NAC). The NAC flows
106 eastwards from the Gulf of Mexico across the Atlantic Ocean, then in an anticlockwise direction
107 northward along the European coastline, before turning south as part of the sub-polar gyre. The
108 Eastern North Atlantic Water (ENAW) originates from the NAC in the Bay of Biscay and is observed
109 at ca. 1000-1500 m water depth on the eastern side of the Rockall Trough (Fig. 1 inset). It turns
110 anticlockwise along the Hebrides Terrace Seamount and then moves south along the western margin
111 of the trough (Holliday et al. 2000; Read 2000). It is advected northward by the Shelf Edge Current
112 (SEC) with an average speed of 15-30 cm/s (New & Smythe-Wright 2001). In the deeper part of the
113 basin and driven by the Deep Northern Boundary Current (DNBC), the North Atlantic Deep Water
114 (NADW) flows along the lower continental slope and within the trough between 2 and 3 km water
115 depth (Fig. 1 inset; McCartney 1992; Dickson & Kidd 1987). All of these currents are thought to be
116 responsible for both the winnowing of sediments and the deposition of contourites on the continental
117 margin in this region and the DBF (Faugeres et al. 1981; Howe 1996; Howe et al. 1998; Stoker 1997;
118 Knutz et al. 2002; Masson et al. 2010; Georgiopoulou et al. 2012). During Quaternary glaciations,
119 the release of large amounts of freshwater from ice sheets had a fundamental role on the deceleration
120 or interruption of several Atlantic oceanic currents (Stanford et al. 2011; Bigg et al. 2012; Toucanne
121 et al. 2015). The North Atlantic sediments recorded these oceanographic changes, as well as the
122 restoration of typical interglacial oceanographic conditions following deglaciation (Rahmstorf 2002;
123 McManus et al. 2004; Austin & Kroon 2001).

124

125 **Materials and methods**

126 The sediment cores analysed in this study were collected as part of the BRITICE-CHRONO project
127 in 2014 by piston coring during cruise JC106 on the *RRS James Cook* (Table 1; Fig. 1). The cores
128 were retrieved from the slope between water depths of 1036 m and 1537 m, with a recovery between
129 661 and 672 cm (Fig. 1; Table 1). Core sites targeted the DBF (Fig. 1) and individual sites were
130 picked using acoustic data collected with a hull-mounted Kongsberg SBP120 sub-bottom profiler.
131 This chirp system operates with a sweep frequency of 2.5 kHz to 6.5 kHz. The survey lines were
132 collected perpendicularly to the margin, from the shelf edge to the base of the continental slope. In
133 this study only one profile was used, it runs across the core location of JC106-134PC and JC106-
134 133PC (Fig. 2). The data were imported into IHS Kingdom as 2D survey lines for visualisation and
135 processing. The sub-bottom data are used in this paper to provide a broader stratigraphic context for
136 the cores. Acoustic units were identified following the methodology outlined in Mitchum et al. (1977)
137 and the depth and thickness in two-way travel time (twt-ms) of the units was converted using the
138 average P-wave velocity acquired by multi sensor core logging of the recovered cores before splitting.
139 The cores were analysed, soon after collection, with a Geotek Multi-Sensor Core Logger (MSCL) at
140 2 cm intervals for physical properties, then they were split, photographed and visually described. In
141 this study specifically the magnetic susceptibility (MS) data are used as they best represent the
142 variability of the lithofacies and their boundaries. X-radiographs were acquired at the School of
143 Radiology at Ulster University, using a CARESTREAM DRX-Evolution System. X-radiographs
144 were used to identify sedimentary structures not visible to the naked eye (cf. Howe 1995). Grain size
145 analyses were carried out using a MALVERN Mastersizer 3000. Samples were collected ca. every
146 20 cm along core, soaked in a 50 ml 5% Calgon concentrated solution, then placed on a shaking table
147 overnight to guarantee the disintegration of flocculated particles. The results are reported in mean
148 volume weight values $D(4;3)$ (cf. Mingard et al. 2009). X-radiographs, MS data and grain size
149 distributions were used to aid lithofacies identification and interpretation.

150 Planktonic foraminifera and IRD counts were conducted in the fraction coarser than 150 μm , on 1
151 cm thick slabs collected at a 20 cm resolution down core and wet-washed at 63 μm . The counting

152 included at least 300 specimens for the planktonic foraminifera and a minimum of 300 lithic grains,
153 when recognised, for the IRD. IRD counts were carried out on a total of 106 samples across the 3
154 cores. IRD concentration [IRD] was calculated as the number of lithic grains on the total dry sediment
155 weight (cf. Haapaniemi et al. 2010; Peck et al. 2006; Scourse et al. 2009). Calculation of the
156 abundance for the polar species *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma* sinistral (NPS) was conducted with
157 the aim of identifying colder stadial intervals. Foraminifera counts were conducted on 36 samples
158 already collected for IRD counts and only in core JC106-133PC. This core was selected for the NPS
159 analysis as it shows the most diverse sediment record of the three and is the furthest away from the
160 former ice margin. Therefore, it is assumed that it represents a more open-water environment, likely
161 to be affected by regional climatic and oceanographic changes, in addition to local and BIIS related
162 proglacial processes.

163 A total of 7 AMS (Accelerator Mass Spectrometer) radiocarbon dates using monospecific planktonic
164 foraminifera, or mixed benthic foraminifera were acquired for this study (Table 2). The samples
165 typically targeted lithofacies boundaries or distinct peaks in the IRD content and were dated at the
166 UK Natural Environment Research Council (NERC) Radiocarbon Facility (NRCF-East Kilbride) and
167 the commercial analytical laboratory Beta Analytic. They were then calibrated using OxCal 4.2
168 (Ramsey 2009) with the Marine13.14c calibration curve (Reimer et al. 2013) which has an inbuilt
169 400-year marine reservoir correction. Table 2 presents the radiocarbon and calibrated dates, with
170 three separate age simulations using ΔR values of 0, 300 and 700 years to account for uncertainty
171 over the spatial and temporal variation in the marine reservoir effect ages in the North Atlantic and
172 adjoining continental shelves since the Last Glacial Maximum (e.g. Wanamaker et al. 2012). For ease
173 of presentation, only the calibrated ages with a ΔR of 0 years are used to describe the timing of events
174 in the text. This protocol for reporting radiocarbon ages was agreed among the members of the
175 BRITICE-CHRONO Consortium to allow for an easier comparison of results across the different
176 transects. One sample was rejected from the age reconstruction because it was found to be collected
177 in a disturbed interval, sample 133PC 375-376 cm. The radiocarbon dates were used for estimations

178 of sedimentation rates, with the interpreted mass transport deposits and turbidites excluded from the
179 calculations (cf. Benetti 2006). Furthermore, the correlation between the IRD and NPS records for
180 the cores and the Greenland ice core isotope records helped, together with the radiocarbon dates, in
181 time constraining the DBF sedimentary record (Peck et al. 2007; Haapaniemi et al. 2010).

182

183 **Results**

184 *Acoustic data*

185 Description

186 Four acoustic units are identified in the seismic profile. Acoustic unit 4 is recognised along the lower
187 (1400-1600 m water depth, Fig. 2a), the middle (900 -1200 m, Fig. 2b) and the upper slope (above
188 900 m, Fig. 2c). It is characterised by sub-parallel, continuous, undisturbed reflectors of variable
189 amplitude, with a wavy upper (purple in Fig. 2) boundary. It shows undulating sub-parallel and
190 undisturbed reflectors in the lower slope (Fig.2a), with a thickness between 20 and 25 meters. It is
191 between 30 and 45 m thick along the middle slope, with sub-parallel reflectors showing an
192 asymmetrical aspect and up-slope propagation (Fig. 2b). In the upper slope, it is found deeper than
193 30 meters below sea floor (mbsf), with low amplitude and wavy, sub-parallel reflectors (Fig. 2c). No
194 clear basal boundary is visible for the unit and the green highlighted reflectors (Fig. 2a,b) likely mark
195 the lack of return for the seismic signal.

196 Acoustic unit 3 is recognised only along the upper slope overlaying unit 4. It has a varying thickness
197 between 10 and 30 m, is bounded by continuous low amplitude reflectors (purple and light blue in
198 Fig. 2c) and it shows an acoustically semi-transparent and chaotic character.

199 Acoustic unit 2 is present along the middle and upper slope, overlaying unit 4 on the middle slope
200 and unit 3 on the upper slope. It ranges between 5 and 10 m of thickness (Fig. 2b,c) and it is internally
201 characterised by low amplitude sub-parallel reflectors. Its upper boundary is represented by a high
202 amplitude, undulated and discontinuous reflector (yellow in Fig. 2b,c). The lower boundary is the

203 light blue low amplitude continuous reflector in the upper slope (Fig. 2c), and the high reflectance
204 pink reflector along the middle slope (Fig. 2b).

205 Acoustic unit 1 is recognised overlaying unit 4 along the lower slope (Fig. 2a), unit 2 on the middle
206 and lower slope (Fig. 2b,c). It is the uppermost facies observed, where it shows a thickness of
207 approximately or lower than 3 m and is acoustically represented by low amplitude sub-parallel
208 reflectors. Its upper boundary is the seabed, which is characterised by a high amplitude, undulated
209 and continuous reflector (dark blue in Fig. 2a,b,c). JC106-133PC was recovered from the lower
210 section of the slope and it sampled unit 1 and the top part of 4 (Fig. 2a). On the seabed, a ~6 m high
211 escarpment is recognised at 1095 m water depth (middle slope). Core JC106-134PC was collected
212 from this section of the slope (Fig. 2b) and it sampled seismic unit 1 and 2. Two escarpments (between
213 5 and 15 m high) are visible in the uppermost facies and at the seafloor along the upper slope (Fig.
214 2c), accounting for some of the discontinuity in the unit. No sediment cores were retrieved from this
215 part of the slope.

216 A direct correlation between the acoustic units along the full length of the slope is not possible due
217 to slope length and steep angle. Although, similar trends can be recognised through the singular slope
218 sections, with no acoustic signal below 35 m, maximum thickness of the seismic units with largely
219 high reflectance between 30 and 10 mbsf, and above these, seismic units thinner and with general
220 low amplitude or transparency. Escarpments are predominantly found within these units.

221

222 Interpretation

223 The seismic line across the DBF shows a 2° steep (on average) slope marked by several escarpments
224 (Fig. 2). Below ~35 m, due to lack of penetration, the record is interpreted as Plio-Pleistocene
225 glaciogenic mass transport deposits based on previously published seismic and
226 sedimentological/borehole records from the North Atlantic margin, which identify in the Upper

MacLeod sequence, a stack (up to 60 m thick) of reworked glaciomarine sediments (Stoker et al. 1994; Stoker 1995).

Acoustic unit 4, together with unit 2, which are of similar character, are interpreted as consisting of Late Pleistocene glaciomarine sediments, also part of the Upper MacLeod sequence. In the lower and middle slope, (Fig. 2a and 2b), these units show continuous and subparallel reflector. Additionally, in the middle slope, the unit displays upslope-climbing sediment waves (Fig. 2b). This configuration is typical of sedimentary wave migration during intervals of large sedimentary input and high sedimentation rates, which could be related to downslope and along slope sediment transport (Wynn & Stow 2002). The upper acoustic unit of the Upper MacLeod sequence was also characterised by continuous, wavy and subparallel reflectors and it was interpreted as distal glaciomarine sediments redistributed by different mass flow processes as mass wasting and turbidites along the Hebrides slope and the Barra Fan (Stoker et al. 1994; Stoker 1995; Armishaw et al. 1998; Knutz et al. 2002).

The character of the upper slope observed in acoustic unit 3 (Fig. 2c) is slightly different (i.e. chaotic and semi-transparent). A similar acoustic facies, interpreted as debrites, is found on the Donegal Barra Fan in correspondence of the Peach Slide (Owen et al., 2018). The occurrence of the buried escarpments specifically within unit 2 seems also to suggest that the upper slope was likely affected by down-slope mass movements and slumps.

The uppermost acoustic unit 1, along the entire slope, is interpreted as recording Holocene hemipelagic and contouritic deposition as observed elsewhere on the fan, where similar acoustic facies and sediments are identified and dated (Armishaw et al. 1998; Knutz et al. 2002; Owen et al. 2018). The reduced thickness compared to the underlying units (~3m vs. 30-40m) suggests a reduced sediment input compared to the previous conditions during the Late Pleistocene.

Chrono- and lithostratigraphy

Lithofacies description

Five lithofacies are defined based on lithology, sediment colour, internal sedimentary structures observed in the X-radiographs, mean grain size (volume weight mean D (4,3)) and magnetic susceptibility (Fig. 3-7).

Laminated mud rich in IRD (ILM): This lithofacies is an olive-brown laminated mud rich in ice-rafted debris (IRD). The diameter of the IRD grains, observed on the split sediment core and by the x-radiographs, ranges from a few mm to 5-6 cm in diameter and the grains are not equally distributed within the facies. Laminations are not always visible to the naked eye but clearly evident on the X-radiographs (Fig. 3). Bioturbation is not noticeably present and foraminiferal content is low. The mean volume grain size is extremely variable due to the IRD content, fluctuating from 10 to 100 μm . Magnetic susceptibility ranges between 80 and 150 (10^{-5} SI) (Fig 4-6). This laminated IRD-rich mud is found in all three piston cores, constitutes the majority of the sediment record and has a thickness of up to 3.5 m (Figs 4, 5 and 6).

Chaotic mud (CM): This lithofacies is an olive-brown, chaotic mud, poorly sorted, devoid of foraminifera, with well-defined shear surfaces and occasional mud clasts (Fig. 3). No primary sedimentary structures are present but rare wispy and dipping laminations are observed (Fig. 3). It is present in all the cores and shows a thickness varying from 20 cm to ca. 50 cm (Figs 4, 5 and 6). The grain size is measured as $< 20 \mu\text{m}$ in volume weight D(4;3).

Laminated sand to mud couplet (LSM): Olive-brown laminated sand to mud couplets, with laminated basal sand and sharp basal contacts are observed in all cores. This lithofacies has a fining upward trend with a coarser sand base gradually fining into mud within the unit (Fig. 3). Ripples are recognised within the sandy interval, bioturbation is absent and foraminifera are scarce. Generally, the couplets are between 5 cm to 10 cm thick and the facies is marked by high magnetic susceptibility, with values between 160 and 270 (10^{-5} SI) (Figs 4, 5 and 6).

278

279 *Extensively bioturbated mud (BM)*: This lithofacies is a brown mottled sandy mud, rich in
280 foraminifera and extensively bioturbated (Fig. 3), showing an abundant presence of *Zoophycos*
281 burrows. *Zoophycos* is an ichnofacies, characterised by long tubular structures parallel and sub-
282 horizontal within the sediment, with a thickness not less than 1 cm (cf. Löwemark et al. 2006). The
283 distribution of this ichnofacies in the JC106 cores varies with core depth. The burrows are abundant
284 at the base of this facies but reduce in number moving upwards in the sediment record. This facies is
285 found in all of the three piston-cores collected from the DBF: at the core top of JC106-133PC and
286 JC106-134PC, and below the foraminifera-bearing mud lithofacies in core JC106-128PC (Figs 4, 5
287 and 6). It is up to 2 m thick and generally darker than the sedimentary unit above (FM) and lighter in
288 colour from the facies below (ILM). Within this lithofacies both fining and coarsening upward trends
289 in grain size were observed during the visual core descriptions and in the x-radiographs, with both
290 sharp and gradual basal and upper contacts. This facies has a high content of foraminifera and the
291 characteristic grain size is calculated between 20 and 40 μm in mean volume weight D(4;3). Magnetic
292 susceptibility varies greatly within the facies and it is between 40-120 (10^{-5} SI) (Figs 4, 5 and 6). No
293 primary sedimentary structures are visible.

294

295 *Foraminifera-bearing mud (FM)*: A light brown, sandy foraminiferal mud was recognised only at the
296 top of core JC106-128PC. This facies shows bioturbation, clearly visible in the X-radiographs (Fig.
297 3). The mean volume grain size is 30-40 μm , with the foraminifera representing the coarser fraction.
298 It has a thickness of approximately 5 cm and there is a gradual contact with the darker underlying
299 lithofacies (BM). The acquisition of physical properties was not possible in this facies because of its
300 limited thickness and position at the core top.

301

302 Lithostratigraphy

303 Core JC106-133PC, the deepest and most westerly located core (Figs 1 and 4), contains laminated
304 IRD-rich mud (ILM) from the base at 660 cm bsf up to 370 cm down core. Three intervals of
305 laminated sand to mud couplets (LSM), with thicknesses varying between a few cm to 7-8 cm, were
306 identified around 380 cm, 390 cm and 444 cm down core, highlighted by increased MS values,
307 reaching over 200 (10^{-5} SI). ILM change gradually over 10 cm into extensively bioturbated mud
308 (BM), which extends up to 185 cm core depth. Within BM, a chaotic mud (CM) interval was
309 recognised at 275 cm, with a 7 cm thickness. Above 185 cm down core, the laminated IRD-rich mud
310 facies is again present and has a thickness of ca. 50 cm, followed by a gradual upper contact over 5
311 cm into another BM interval that continues to the core top.

312 In core JC106-128PC (Figs 1 and 5), IRD-rich laminated mud (ILM) is the dominant lithofacies from
313 the core base to 95 cm core depth. Four chaotic mud (CM) deposits, bounded by inclined and sharp
314 planes, are identified through the ILM interval at 310 cm, 449 cm, 547 cm and 590 cm down core,
315 with thickness ranging between 5 and 25 cm. A LSM interval at 182 cm core depth displays a sharp
316 basal contact and a thickness of 8 cm and it is well visible by a peak in MS reaching 160 (10^{-5} SI).
317 Above 95 cm, ILM gradually passes into BM over a few cm. This extensively bioturbated mud
318 extends up to 5 cm down core, interrupted by a 5 cm thick laminated mud at 30-35 cm with sharp
319 basal and gradual top contact. There is a gradual transition from BM to foraminifera-bearing mud
320 (FM), visible between 5 cm and the core top. The FM lithofacies is found exclusively at the core top
321 of 128PC (Figs 1 and 5).

322 In core JC106-134PC, the more proximal to the shelf edge (Fig. 1), ILM represents the main
323 lithofacies, extending from the base of the core up to 120 cm down-core. At 444 cm down-core a
324 sharp increase is seen in the magnetic susceptibility signal (Fig. 6), with a high value of 346 (10^{-5} SI)
325 which correspond to large lithic grains, easily recognised at the x-rays. A 1m-thick chaotic mud
326 deposit is recognised between 210 cm and 310 cm, with an inclined sharp surface at the top and faint
327 and inclined lamination within it. A laminated sand to mud couplet (LSM) is observed at 198-195
328 cm, it is indicated by an increase in the mean volume grain size and a peak in MS of 200 (10^{-5} SI).

329 Above ILM, BM extends with a gradual contact from 120 cm core depth up to the core top. A 10 cm-
330 thick CM deposit was recognised at 50 cm bsf. This unit is wedge shaped and marked by two inclined
331 (up to 45°) sharp surfaces, bounded with fine silt (Fig. 3).

332 Overall, the three cores show a similar alternation of lithofacies from base to top and result in a similar
333 internal organisation (Figs 4, 5 and 6), although core JC106-128PC differs in that it contains a larger
334 number of chaotic mud deposits compared with the other two. Generally, the IRD-rich laminated mud
335 constitutes the majority of the sediments and the facies is recognised in the lower half of the sediment
336 record in the cores. Within the top of ILM, during the transition to BM, the laminated sand to mud
337 couplets (LSM) are identified in all the three cores. The LSM are always recognised in the upper part
338 of the ILM. Conversely, the CM lithofacies does not display a noticeable trend as these intervals are
339 present through the record. BM is characteristic of the upper part of JC106-133PC and JC106-134PC,
340 but not of JC106-128PC. A thin (5 cm) interval of foraminiferal-bearing mud (FM) is recognised at
341 the top of JC106-128PC (Fig. 5). This facies does not seem to be present in the other two sediment
342 cores. An IRD-rich mud interval is identified through the BM facies in JC106-133PC and JC106-
343 128PC, with a thickness of 45 cm at 1537 m water depth and 5 cm at 1475 m water depth, but it is
344 not recognised in JC106-134PC, the shallowest of the cores. The interval is highlighted by high values
345 of MS, ranging between 160 and 200 (10^{-5} SI) (Figs 4 and 5).

346

347 Radiocarbon dating and sedimentation rates

348 Radiocarbon ages constrain most of the sediment record to the end of the last glacial interval (Marine
349 Isotopic Stage 2 - MIS2). In the cores the oldest age of $17,825 \pm 175$ cal. BP is found between 583
350 and 588 cm down core in JC106-133PC, within the ILM lithofacies. The youngest age is observed in
351 the same ILM lithofacies, at 175 cm in the same core, corresponding to $12,690 \pm 90$ cal. BP. The
352 available ages constrain the boundary between the laminated mud rich in IRD and the extensively
353 bioturbated mud ranging from 16 to 15.2 ka cal. BP.

354 The sedimentation rates calculated for the laminated mud rich in IRD are 166 cm/ka for JC106-134PC
355 (closest to the continental shelf break), and 131.8 cm/ka for JC106-133PC (furthest from the shelf
356 break). Rates for the extensively bioturbated mud (BM) facies show much lower values, ranging from
357 3.7 cm/ka for JC106-134PC to 21 for JC106-133PC.

358

359 Ice-rafted debris (IRD) concentration and *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma* abundance

360 IRD is mainly represented by crystalline quartzite, granite and basalt. These petrologies were
361 previously recognised as typical of the Irish and Scottish geology (Knutz et al. 2001) and therefore
362 likely to be related to the delivery of IRD by the BIIS during its advance and retreat in the Late
363 Quaternary. IRD is found within the laminated mud lithofacies at an average concentration of 960
364 grains/g of dry sediment in JC106-133PC, 1150 grains/g in JC106-128PC and 1350 grains/g in
365 JC106-134PC (Figs 4, 5 and 6). The lowest [IRD] values are generally measured at the core tops and
366 within the BM lithofacies. The highest concentrations are observed in lithofacies ILM, 6730 grains/g
367 of dry sediment, at 350 cm down-core in JC106-134PC (the most proximal core to the shelf edge;
368 Fig. 6).

369 In core JC106-133PC, [IRD] is very low within the BM lithofacies, with values close to 0 (Fig. 4). In
370 the ILM, the [IRD] increases to a minimum of 1000 grains/g. Three main IRD peaks are observed at
371 175 cm, 453 cm and 585 cm with respective values of 1420, 2340 and 3600 grains/g. These peaks are
372 relatively sharp and represent a two- to three-fold increase in IRD concentration compared to the
373 values above and below them. Core JC106-133PC shows consistently high [IRD] in the bottom half
374 (Fig. 4), on average 1656 grains/g per sample. Within the upper part of the core, an interval with a
375 peak [IRD] is recognised between 140 and 175 cm, with values up to 1428 grains/g. In core JC106-
376 128PC, the [IRD] shows an irregular pattern, displaying many peaks with maximum values of 2180
377 and 1910 grains/g (Fig. 5). The lowest values (<200 grains/g) are measured in the BM lithofacies;
378 while in the ILM, peaks are observed with values of 1030 and 1620 grains/g. The highest peaks are
379 recognised within chaotic muds. In core JC106-134PC, the lowest [IRD] are measured through the

380 BM lithofacies with values between 0 and 1000 grains/g (Fig. 6). A general increase is observed in
381 the ILM lithofacies, with an average of 1547 grains/g per sample. As previously observed in JC106-
382 128PC, the increase in [IRD] can sometimes be correlated to the presence of chaotic mud deposits
383 along core. Two [IRD] peaks within the ILM are recognised at 350 and 550 cm with values of 6730
384 and 3026 grains /g.

385 The abundance of the planktonic foraminifera *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma* sinistral (NPS%)
386 calculated in core JC106-133PC shows an alternation between high and low values (Fig. 4). The
387 NPS% abundance mirrors the IRD curve, with high NPS% corresponding with IRD peaks and
388 characterising the ILM lithofacies. NPS% is low at the core top, with values <10% of the planktonic
389 foraminifera assemblage between the core top and 120 cm of core depth. Further down the core, a
390 sudden increase between 140 and 195 cm is recorded with NPS% $\geq 80\%$. Between 195 cm and 355
391 cm down-core, the NPS% is reduced again to values <10 %. At 375 cm of core depth, the NPS
392 abundance increases suddenly and significantly, exceeding values of 80%, and remains high in the
393 lower part of the core to the base.

394

395 **Discussion**

396 ***Chronostratigraphy***

397 The chronostratigraphic framework for the sediment cores is reconstructed using the radiocarbon
398 dates together with *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma* sinistral abundance (NPS%) and the IRD record.
399 NPS% commonly indicates changes in sea-surface temperature and it is known to represent the most
400 abundant polar species during cold intervals in this region (Bond et al. 1993). In this region, NPS%
401 has been previously observed having a direct correlation with BIIS-delivered IRD and air temperature
402 changes recorded in ice masses, making it possible to correlate it with the GISP2 ice-record from
403 Greenland (Peck et al. 2006; Peck et al. 2007; Haapaniemi et al. 2010). In core JC106-133PC, the
404 NPS% also shows a direct correlation with the IRD concentration (Fig. 4). Therefore, the trends in
405 [IRD] in all cores were tentatively correlated with the oxygen isotopic record from the GISP2 ice-

record from Greenland (Rasmussen et al. 2014). This was done in order to establish the chronostratigraphy of the sediment record, to identify possible stadial and interstadial periods and to allow comparison with the previous works in this area (Fig. 7). Based on the available radiocarbon dates and the pattern of IRD distribution, the entire sediment record appears to be younger than 18 ka cal. BP and therefore time-constrained to Marine Isotopic Stage (MIS) 1 and the latter part of MIS2 (Figs 7 and 8). Based on the correlation between the DBF IRD record and the GISP2, together with the acquired radiocarbon dates, the laminated mud rich in IRD (ILM), characterised by high NPS abundance and IRD concentrations, is thus dated to the Greenland Stadial 2 (GS-2) (23 to 14.7 ka cal. BP). The ensuing extensively bioturbated muds (BM) were likely deposited during the Bølling-Allerød interstadial (14.7-12.8 ka cal. BP) or Greenland interstadial 1 (GI-1). ILM is again identified within the YD or Greenland stadial 1 (12.9 to 11.5 ka cal. BP), in core JC106-133PC. After the YD, a return to BM deposition follows during the Holocene. The reduced thickness of the BM in cores JC106-128PC and JC106-134PC is interpreted as representing a low sedimentation rate following the GS-2 (hypothetical values indicated in Fig. 7) or a possible hiatus in sedimentation as no clear YD IRD record is evident in the two cores (Fig. 8).

Based on acoustic units thicknesses, unit 4, 2 and 1 (Fig. 2) contain all the lithofacies observed in the cores and these are therefore interpreted as representing sedimentation post last glacial maximum (LGM).

Sedimentary facies interpretation

The five lithofacies identified in the sediment record are interpreted as corresponding to five different sedimentary processes, all characteristic of sedimentation along a glaciated margin (Fig. 8; Hesse et al. 1997; Weaver et al. 2000; Ó Cofaigh & Dowdeswell 2001; Lucchi et al. 2002). All the core bottoms show deposition of laminated mud rich in IRD (ILM) on the DBF between ~ 18 ka cal. and 16 ka cal. BP. Based on the planar laminations, relatively high sedimentation rates, presence of IRD and lack of bioturbation, the ILM facies is interpreted as a plumite. The facies is read as being

deposited mostly by settling of fine-grained sediments from meltwater plumes, in conjunction with ice-rafted material from icebergs (cf. Wang & Hesse 1996; Hesse et al. 1997; Dowdeswell et al. 1998; Hesse et al. 1999; Ó Cofaigh & Dowdeswell 2001; Evans et al. 2002; Lekens et al. 2005; Lucchi et al. 2002; Roger et al. 2013; Prothro et al. 2018). Meltwater plumes have been observed to deliver fine sediment up to 250 km from the basal ice sheet meltout location (Hesse et al. 1997; Prothro et al. 2018) and in this study the cores are retrieved at a maximum of 200 km from the inferred closest ice-margin. The BIIS former ice margin was in fact located at this time on the Malin Sea Shelf, along Western Scotland and the Hebrides (Finlayson et al. 2014; Small et al. 2017; Callard et al. 2019). Within the facies, the main IRD petrologies include basalts, quartzite and highly metamorphic rocks, and they do not show any significant variation in abundance/composition along core. The highest IRD concentrations are inferred to be related to a relative enrichment of icebergs due to calving events (cf. Andrews 2000; Scourse et al. 2009).

The laminated sand to mud couplets (LSM) found within the plumites with the fining upward grain size and the sedimentary structures, such as ripples and planar lamination, suggest that they are deposits of dilute, low-density turbidity currents (Middleton & Hampton 1976; Lowe 1979; Lowe 1982; Wang & Hesse 1996; Hesse et al. 1997; Hesse et al. 1999). Based on the core chronostratigraphy, they likely deposited around 17 ka cal. BP and their occurrence is inferred as related to the meltwater release (Fig. 8). The identification of turbulent flow deposits along the margin also suggests the deposition of sediment from glacial meltwater during the final stages of BIIS melting, with consequent slope instability during deglaciation. Hyperpycnal flows and the direct flow of fresh sediment-laden waters into the ocean, are indeed identified as one of the possible mechanisms for the generation of turbidity currents and they have been described from modern tidewater glaciers and inferred from sediment records from other formerly glaciated margins (Piper and Normark 2009). A similar behaviour along polar and north Atlantic margins is recorded in a rhythmic turbiditic activity, used as a proxy for meltwater delivery during the last deglaciation (Dowdeswell et al. 1998; Roger et al. 2013).

458 Overlying the plumites, the extensively bioturbated mud facies (BM) is interpreted on the basis of
459 lack of primary sedimentary structures, bioturbation, mottling and low sedimentation rates (Figs 7
460 and 8) as contourites (i.e. sediment reworked and winnowed by bottom-currents; Stow 1979; Stow &
461 Lovell 1979; Stow & Piper 1984; Stow et al. 2002; Rebesco et al. 2014). The transition from plumite
462 to contouritic deposition occurred between ~16 and ~15.2 ka cal. BP and seems to continue to modern
463 day (Fig. 8). Based on their mean grain size (<30 µm), the contouritic deposits can be classified as
464 muddy contourites (cf. Stow et al. 2002; Rebesco et al. 2014). The *Zoophycos* ichnofacies within the
465 contourites allows for the identification of an initial restoration of the bottom currents and of
466 intermediate climatic conditions in the region at this time. This *ichnofacies* appears to be dominant
467 and is consistent with a well-developed burrowing network in deep-water ecosystems that developed
468 at the transition between cold and warm climatic stages (Dorador et al. 2016). The top of the
469 contourites has not been dated, but the facies is recognised to the tops of cores JC106-133PC and
470 JC106-134PC (Fig. 8). In cores JC106-134PC and JC106-128PC, the BM unit is between 120 and 95
471 cm thick, which seems to suggest a very condensed post-deglaciation and Holocene sediment record,
472 or the presence of a sedimentary hiatus. If the core top represents modern day sedimentation, the
473 average sedimentation rate since ~ 15 ka cal. BP would be ca. 3.5 cm/ka for JC106-134PC and < 7.8
474 cm/ka for JC106-128PC. Conversely, in core JC106-133PC, the contouritic unit is 360 cm thick but
475 it is interrupted by a 50-cm thick plumite interval (Fig. 4). This corresponds to an average
476 sedimentation rate of 21 cm/ka for the same period. The contouritic unit is interpreted as being
477 initially deposited during the transition between stadial and interstadial conditions, with relative high
478 sedimentation rate (between 20 and 5 cm/ka) and presence of *Zoophycos* as observed elsewhere along
479 the Atlantic margin (cf. Dorador et al. 2016).

480 Chaotic muds (CM) occur within the plumite and the contouritic facies (Fig. 8). Chaotic muds are
481 interpreted as mass transport deposits due to slope instability (Holmes et al. 1998; Tripsanas & Piper
482 2008). The interpretation is supported by the identification of inclined (up to 45°; Fig. 3) sharp
483 contacts inferred as shear surfaces and the presence of mud clasts. Similar deposits have been

484 identified within glaciogenic sediments along other glaciated margins (Aksu & Hiscott 1989;
485 Tripsanas & Piper 2008; Garcia et al. 2011).

486 The thin (5 cm) interval of foraminiferal-bearing mud (FM) at the top of JC106-128PC (highlighted
487 in Fig. 8 by the yellow arrow) is interpreted as a hemipelagite. It is the result of slow settling of fine
488 mud and foraminiferal tests, where bioturbation is common and the depositional environment is
489 characterised by low energy (Stow et al. 1996; Stow & Mayall 2000; Howe 1995; Knutz et al. 2001).

490 The hemipelagite is not directly dated but its similarities with other deposits reported in the vicinity,
491 such as characteristic colour, presence of foraminifera and the core top position (along the Irish
492 margin: Howe 1995; Knutz et al., 2002; on the DBF: Howe 1996; Knutz et al. 2001; Wilson et al.
493 2002; and in the Rockall Trough: Howe 1995; Georgiopoulou et al. 2012) suggest that this facies
494 represents the most recent Holocene deposition. The hemipelagite does not seem to be present in
495 JC106-133PC and JC106-134PC; its absence could be attributed to the presence of erosional bottom
496 currents at specific water depths in the region, but also to coring disturbance, as it is likely to lose the
497 top few centimetres of sediment record when piston coring (Buckley et al. 1994).

498

499 *The Late Quaternary DBF sedimentary record*

500 The interpretation of the sedimentary processes and their timing, derived from the radiocarbon dates
501 and the correlation between the IRD and the GISP2 oxygen isotope records, reveal how sedimentation
502 in the DBF evolved during the Late Quaternary as the BIIS margin retreated from the shelf edge (Fig.
503 9). Within the studied DBF record, the plumes calculated sedimentation rates ranges between 160
504 and 130 cm/ka, with the lower values in core JC106-133PC, the most distal from the shelf edge. The
505 high sedimentation rates in the plumes suggest that these have been delivered through concentrated
506 meltwater plumes and icebergs, confirming the presence of a melting and retreating BIIS along
507 western Scotland and the Hebrides. The DBF glaciomarine sediments were delivered by meltwater
508 plumes during the last period of BIIS marine extension, representing the deglacial sedimentary record
509 of the retreating Hebrides Ice Stream (HIS). The HIS provenance is suggested given the close

510 proximity of the DBF to the Outer Hebrides (approximately 100 km), with a less likely North Channel
511 Ice Stream contribution, merely based on relative distance from the ice margin. The total deglaciation
512 of the MSs, with retreat of the ice-limit to the present coast line and consequent interruption of the
513 HIS, has been dated between 17-16 ka cal. BP (Bradwell et al. 2008; Small et al. 2017; Ballantyne &
514 Ó Cofaigh 2017; Callard et al. 2019). Other evidence along western Scotland suggests that the BIIS
515 was extending onto the MSs until around ~16 ka cal. BP (Dove et al. 2015; Small et al. 2016; Small
516 et al. 2017). These previous works in the area support the possibility of a large deglacial record
517 deposited in the deep water and allow to confirm that the sedimentary evolution of the fan was largely
518 related to the BIIS extension up until its final retreat onshore.

519 Following deglaciation, the continental slope of the DBF experienced a progressive strengthen of
520 bottom currents. The *Zoophycos* ichnofacies is visible in the contourite deposited just after the BIIS
521 deglaciation and the YD, it suggests an increase in temperature and a restoration in ocean currents
522 speed following the current weakening during the cold stadials. The decrease in *Zoophycos* burrows
523 toward the core top in BM is attributed to an increasing bottom current velocity and temperature
524 through time, representing a transition to modern climatic conditions. Such an increase in current
525 speed would have had the potential to winnow the sediments in the study area and may be responsible
526 for the limited thickness of the post-glacial and Holocene sediments. The thickness of the contourites
527 appears to increase with water depth and this is proposed to be linked with variations in bottom current
528 speed, with higher speed along the shallower section and lower speed at depth, with a reduced erosive
529 power or possible settling of material. Hiatuses in the DBF record were observed in previous studies
530 and attributed to the NADW current, which could winnow or hinder hemipelagic deposition during
531 the Late Pleistocene and Holocene on the North East Atlantic continental slope (Knutz et al. 2002).
532 The sediment record from the JC cores confirms these previous observations from elsewhere on the
533 DBF and suggests that the winnowing of Holocene sediments is active between 1000 m and 1500 m
534 of water depth, in correspondence of the flow of ENAW.

535 Hemipelagite deposition is not particularly prominent along this stretch of the margin and only a thin
536 hemipelagic layer is present at the top of core JC106-128PC. We can only speculate that this
537 hemipelagite represents the most recent sedimentation and that the transition into this different style
538 of sedimentation could be related to further changes in oceanic circulation and/or reduced sediment
539 supply in the study area. However, our data is too limited to discuss this any further.

540

541 IRD peaks and calving events

542 Three peaks in IRD are identified and interpreted as an increased release of IRD due to iceberg
543 calving events. Iceberg calving is suggested as the mostly likely process for the delivery of sand
544 and coarse size lithic grains to the core sites (Lekens et al. 2005; Rorvik et al. 2010). These peaks
545 are tentatively correlated across the cores and the two main events are dated before 16 ka cal. BP:
546 one was directly dated at ~17.8 ka cal. BP, whilst the younger is inferred to have been deposited
547 around ~16.9 ka cal. BP based on the calculated sedimentation rate on JC106-133PC (blue arrows
548 in Fig. 7). The third IRD peak, only recognized in core JC106-133PC, the most distal from the MSs,
549 is directly dated at ~ 12.7 ka cal. BP (i.e. during the Younger Dryas; Alley 2000).

550 During MIS 2, the peaks are interpreted as the result of BIIS calving events, in particular from the
551 HIS section of the ice sheet as it retreated towards land at this time. For the YD plume characterised
552 by a high [IRD] and NPS% a different origin for the icebergs is suggested. Previous studies on
553 sediment cores from the North East Atlantic margin showed a similar enrichment in IRD during YD
554 that was attributed largely to the Laurentide Ice Sheet, with the potential presence of a calving ice
555 sheet in Scotland (Scourse et al. 2009). Recent evidence indicated that the Scandinavian Ice Sheet
556 (SIS) extended offshore south-west of Norway during the YD (Broecker et al. 2010; Mangerud et al.
557 2016). Additional evidence suggests that the main oceanic currents weakened, similarly to what
558 happened during the previous glacial period (Austin & Kroon 2001; Peck et al. 2006; Adams et al.
559 1999; Broecker et al. 2010; Lynch-Stieglitz et al. 2011). Based on previous reconstructions of ice-
560 sheets history along the NE Atlantic margin, in particular during the YD (Hughes et al. 2015;

561 Mangerud et al. 2016), we postulate that the YD DBF received a high IRD discharge likely related to
562 a SIS advance and an associated icebergs flowing south along the Atlantic margin. A SIS origin is
563 suggested considering that the IRD petrographies in the YD-dated interval are represented largely by
564 quartzite, basalt and highly metamorphic grains, corresponding with a European origin/geology
565 (<http://www.ngu.no/emne/regionalgeologi>). These petrologies are typically found along the
566 Scandinavian margin as well as the southern located UK and Irish margin, and they represent the
567 majority of the lithics identified in this study. The IRD petrologies, together with a non-previous
568 recognized BIIS marine extension able to deliver meltwater plume and iceberg to the fan during the
569 YD, is interpreted as potentially related to icebergs from the documented extended SIS. A detailed
570 investigation of the IRD record, with calculations of relative abundance of the IRD petrologies was
571 not part of the project and is strongly suggested for future studies as it may provide clear evidence
572 for icebergs provenance.

573

574 *Comparison with other glaciated margins*

575 Most of the JC106 sediment record from the DBF is interpreted as representing the sedimentation
576 occurring during the final stages of the last BIIS deglaciation, at the end of the Late Midlandian
577 glaciation (MIS2). Between ~18 and ~16 ka cal. BP, the DBF received meltwater and IRD from the
578 BIIS before complete ice-depletion. This suggests that meltwater and iceberg discharge during the
579 latter part of the deglaciation significantly contribute to the build-up of the DBF, in addition to the
580 downslope sediment transport observed occurring during the broader last glacial interval (Howe
581 1995; Stoker 1995; Armishaw et al. 1998; Holmes et al. 1998; Sejrup et al. 2005).

582 The DBF deglacial sediment record analysed in this study shows similarities with most records of
583 other glaciated margins and glaciogenic fans. These similarities are recognised in the style of
584 sediment deposition, in particular the presence of plumites, recognised along the Northern North Sea,
585 the Norwegian Margin, the Barents Sea and the Canadian Slope (Hesse et al. 1999; Lekens et al.
586 2006; Lucchi et al. 2015). The sedimentation rates calculated for the plumites on the Norwegian

margin vary between 20 and 2000 cm/ka (Lekens et al. 2005; Hjelstuen et al. 2009). In addition, along the Southern Norwegian Margin the ice stream activity also is recognised concluding through calving events, recorded as high content of IRD within the plumites (Lekens et al. 2005).

Our data show that the deep water environment and the slope are still largely influenced by the BIIS activities during the final moment of ice sheet extension offshore. The meters-thick plumite intervals on the DBF show how the marine terminating ice sheets are still able to deliver sediments with relatively high sedimentation rates through meltwater plumes, up to the ice sheet retreat onshore. The delivery of glaciogenic sediment to the fan during deglaciation, once the ice sheet retreated from the shelf edge, is inferred to have occurred largely by meltwater processes and iceberg rafting. The latter is based on the presence of IRD peaks within the plumites. This contrasts with periods when the ice sheet was positioned at the shelf break during glacial maxima and glaciogenic sediment delivery to the fan was dominated by downslope mass transport, particularly by gravity flow processes (cf. Dowdeswell et al. 1998).

More widely this highlights differences in the nature of sediment delivery on glaciated continental margins such that high-latitude slopes, along the Norwegian and Svalbard margins (e.g., Dahlgren & Vorren 2003; Jessen et al. 2010), are dominated by downslope sediment transport, especially that related to glaciogenic debris flows (Laberg et al. 2000); whereas, further south along the Irish margin and on the DBF the contribution of meltwater delivery becomes much more significant. The latter is consistent with studies from the Canadian margin, in particular the Scotian slope (e.g., Piper 1988) where meltwater delivery was a major contributor to margin development particularly during deglaciation of the Laurentide Ice Sheet (LIS). The ice loss from the southern portion of the LIS occurred mostly by melting due to the thermal gradient along the margin (Piper 1988); such a gradient could similarly be the cause of the varying style of ice loss along the NE Atlantic discussed here.

Implication for climate reconstruction in the North Atlantic

BIIS calving events have previously been interpreted as independently regulated by the internal ice-sheet dynamics on a millennial (D-O) time scale (Knutz et al. 2001; Wilson et al. 2002; Peck et al. 2006; Haapaniemi et al. 2010). From a broad perspective, a synchronicity in the final deglaciation of European Ice Sheets (EIS), including the BIIS, the Scandinavian Ice Sheet, the Svalbard-Barents-Kara Seas and the Channel River Hydrographic Network, along the North East Atlantic was suggested (Hughes et al. 2015).

The EIS, which similarly to the Laurentide Ice Sheet delivered large amounts of freshwater to the North Atlantic Ocean, is considered responsible for global climatic changes during the deglaciation (Bigg et al. 2012; Toucanne et al. 2015). The BIIS dynamics, together with the other European Ice Sheets, can therefore be considered as having an active and contributing role on the North Atlantic climate. The reconstructed dynamic behaviour of the BIIS from the DBF sediment record seems to show some synchronicity with the ice margin further south. In particular, sediment retrieved from the Bay of Biscay showed two large discharges of meltwater from the EIS occurring at 18.2 ± 0.2 and 16.7 ± 0.2 ka cal. BP (Toucanne et al. 2015). These timings are very similar to those of the IRD peaks recorded in the DBF and inferred as large release of meltwater and calving events during the deglaciation of the Malin Sea shelf and the Hebrides Ice Stream. Additionally, both the DBF and Bay of Biscay records show glacial instability and ice wasting during stadial Heinrich stadial 1 (HS1) (18.2-16.7 ka BP), which represents the time period when the Laurentide Ice Sheet (LIS) instability reached its maximum, including the occurrence of Heinrich 1 event (Heinrich 1988). The synchronicity in the deglacial meltwater release between the BIIS and the EIS, and further afield with the LIS, highlights a potential climatic relationship among the circum-North Atlantic ice-sheets, at least in their final deglaciation. Given the potential effect of the release of large amount of meltwater on the North Atlantic circulation, it is possible that these pulses in deglaciation may explain some of the observed variability in the North Atlantic Ocean circulation at this time (cf. Bigg et al. 2012).

636

637 **Conclusions**

638 The investigation of the deep water sediments retrieved from the DBF allowed for the reconstruction
639 of the final stages of the BIIS deglaciation, since 18 ka cal. BP, and the transition to modern climatic
640 conditions (Fig. 9).

- 641 • The DBF sedimentary history from the last ~ 18,000 years was reconstructed. The sediments
642 record deposition from meltwater plumes with high sedimentation rates during the final
643 BIIS deglaciation, with a post-glacial restoration of oceanic currents and deposition of
644 contourites during the Holocene.
- 645 • The different proxies used, in particular the IRD concentration, allowed for the identification
646 of two intervals of iceberg calving during deglaciation, at ~17.8 and ~16.9 ka cal. BP. These
647 occurred within the period when meltwater released by the demise of the BIIS resulted in the
648 deposition of thick plumites on the DBF. The provenance of the IRD record, based on the
649 lithic grains petrologies, suggest European Ice Sheet calving events, including from the
650 Hebrides and Western Scotland.
- 651 • During the Younger Dryas, an IRD-rich interval is related to a marine re-advance and calving
652 of the Scandinavian Ice Sheet, on the basis of similar composition in the lithic grains
653 petrologies and the recorded marine extension for SIS at that time.
- 654 • The transition into post-glacial conditions is marked by the restoration of oceanic currents and
655 deposition of contourites. The identification of the ichnofacies *Zoophycos* in this interval
656 marks the transition between stadial and interstadial climatic conditions, as observed
657 elsewhere in the North Atlantic. It appears that contouritic lithofacies rich in *Zoophycos*
658 represent a useful climatic tool in the study of the sediment record on continental margins
659 around the North Atlantic.
- 660 • The British-Irish Ice Sheet's meltwater pulses and calving events recorded in the DBF
661 sediments appear to be largely synchronous with those of the European Ice Sheet during the
662 Late Quaternary and in particular at the transition between Marine Isotopic Stages 2 and 1.

663 This strongly suggests that such a synchronous behavior with the release of large amounts of
664 freshwater could have had an active role on the reduction of the Atlantic Meridional Oceanic
665 Current at this time and its effect on the North Atlantic climate.

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667

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972 Figure 1: North Atlantic glaciated margin with the highlighted approximate extent of the Donegal
973 Barra fan and JC106 core locations. The main direction of ice-streaming during the last glacial period
974 is indicated by the black arrows (Hebrides Ice Stream-HIS; North Channel Ice Stream-NCIS). Inset
975 shows the position of the main map along the Atlantic margin with the main water masses. The
976 bathymetry data is supplied by the GEBCO, General Bathymetric Chart of the Ocean and the colour
977 scale was selected for better visibility of the glacial features on the shelf. A-A': Location of seismic
978 line presented in this paper. DBF=Donegal-Barra Fan (outline from Sacchetti et al., 2012), MSs=
979 Malin Sea shelf, OH= Outer Hebrides, RT=Rockall Trough, HS=Hebrides Terrace Seamount,
980 ADS=Anton Dohrn Seamount, NADW=North Atlantic Deep Water, ENAW=Eastern North Atlantic
981 Water.

982 Figure 2: Seismic profile along the slope with core location for 134PC and 133PC. Insets are indicated
983 for the a) lower slope, b) middle slope, c) upper slope. The acoustic facies identified are indicated by
984 coloured lines.

985 Figure 3: Five lithofacies illustrated with x-radiographs. Foraminiferal-bearing mud: FM (identified
986 by the yellow lateral bar); Extensively bioturbated mud: BM (Zoophycos burrows shown by orange
987 arrows; this image is presented with inverted grey-colour scale to better display the ichnofacies);
988 Chaotic mud: CM (purple arrow indicates an inclined shear surface); Laminated sand to mud couplet:
989 LSM (fining upward of the sediment visible in the x-rays); Laminated mud rich in IRD: ILM (larger
990 lithic grains indicated by blue arrows and laminations are visible in the x-rays).

991 Figure 4: X-radiographs, lithofacies identification, log, magnetic susceptibility (MS), mean volume
992 grain size (μm) (D), IRD concentration [IRD], abundance of *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma sinistral*
993 (%NPS calculated as percentage of the total planktonic foraminiferal assemblage) and
994 conventional radiocarbon ages for core JC106-133PC. MS data from Figs. 4 to 6, present a wider
995 spacing, approximately every meter, in correspondence of the end of the core sections. Lithofacies:

996 FM=Foraminiferal-bearing mud, BM=Extensively bioturbated mud, CM=Chaotic mud,
 997 LSM=Laminated sand to mud couplet, ILM=Laminated mud rich in IRD.

998 Figure 5: X-radiographs, lithofacies identification, log, magnetic susceptibility (MS), mean volume
 999 grain size (D), IRD concentration [IRD] and conventional radiocarbon age for core JC106-128PC.

1000 Figure 6: X-radiographs, lithofacies identification, log, magnetic susceptibility (MS), mean volume
 1001 grain size (D), IRD concentration [IRD] and conventional radiocarbon ages for core JC106-134PC.

1002 Figure 7: From left to right – $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record from the GISP2 ice core record from Greenland
 1003 (Rasmussen et al., 2014) for the last 20ka and stadials (cold/light blue) and interstadials (warm/light
 1004 pink). GS: Greenland stadial; GI: Greenland interstadial; BL: Bølling-Allerød, YD: Younger Dryas.
 1005 Marine Isotopic Stages (MIS) boundaries after Lisiecki & Raymo (2005). The time interval covered
 1006 by the DBF sediment record is indicated and the GISP2 record for this specific interval is zoomed in.
 1007 The dark blue arrow indicated the high peak in IRD concentration dated ~16.9 ka cal. BP, the light
 1008 blue arrow the older rich in IRD event dated ~17.8 ka cal. BP.

1009 Figure 8: Correlation between the three DBF sediment cores based on lithofacies, [IRD] concentration
 1010 and calibrated radiocarbon dates. The yellow arrow at the 128PC core top highlights the thin FM
 1011 facies.

1012 Figure 9: Schematic depositional model for the DBF. The sedimentation is represented by meltwater
 1013 pulses, iceberg discharges and downslope mass transport. Meltwater and iceberg presence are
 1014 recorded in sediments older than 15.9 ka cal. BP and of Younger Dryas age. Contouritic deposition
 1015 is recognised for sediment dated after 15.2 ka cal. BP. Currents abbreviations: ENAW= Eastern North
 1016 Atlantic Water; DNBC= Deep Northern Boundary Current.

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Table 1: Sediment core information.

Core	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°W)	Water depth (m)	Core Length (cm)
JC106-128PC	56.17147	-9.616743	1475	668
JC106-133PC	56.44449	-9.672212	1537	661
JC106-134PC	56.44471	-9.321229	1036	672

Table 2: Radiocarbon results. Sample indicated by * was not taken into account for age reconstruction as it was at a later stage recognized to be in a re-deposited/disturbed interval. All the values are rounded to the nearest decade or multiple of 5. NPS=Neogloboquadrina pachyderma sinistral, G.B.= Globigerina bulloides.

Core	Depth (cm)	Sample material	¹⁴ C Age (yrs. BP)	Calibrated age (yrs. BP) ΔR=0	Calibrated age (yrs. BP) ΔR=300	Calibrated age (yrs. BP) ΔR=700	Surrounding lithofacies	Laboratory code
128PC	125-128	Mono. NPS	13710 ± 40	15995 ± 180	15550 ± 220	14960 ± 230	LM	SUERC-67943
134PC	60-61	Mono. G.B.	13175 ± 40	15240 ± 140	14635 ± 360	13955 ± 135	EXFM	SUERC-63572
134PC	588-593	Mixed benthic forams	15020 ± 45	17800 ± 170	17445 ± 180	16865 ± 225	LM	SUERC-63573
133PC	175-176	Mono. NPS	11200 ± 30	12690 ± 90	12440 ± 150	11655 ± 250	LM	441865
133PC	375-376*	Mixed benthic forams	15270 ± 45	18070 ± 170	17750 ± 175	17250 ± 195	SMC	SUERC-67947
133PC	433-438	Mono. NPS	14355 ± 40	16915 ± 220	16455 ± 210	15930 ± 175	LM	SUERC-67948
133PC	583-588	Mono. NPS	15050 ± 50	17825 ± 175	17465 ± 195	16885 ± 240	LM	450231

















